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ABSTRACT

A design for a 1973 study of the social mobility of men in the civilian noninstitutional population of the United States, the study has replicated the 1962 benchmark survey entitled "Occupational Changes in a Generation" by Peter M. Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan. One project objective was the reestimation of the parameters of Blau and Duncan models for the process of social stratification--the intergenerational transmission of inequalities. Beyond replication for the purpose of analyzing social change, the design has ensured more precise estimates of stratification for blacks, more complete information on factors alleged to affect inter- and intragenerational mobility, and rudimentary estimates of differential stratification for married men and women currently living with their spouses. (Author/EA)

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ABSTRACT

This paper develops a design for a 1973 study of the social mobility of men in the civilian noninstitutional population of the United States. In most respects, the study will replicate the 1962 benchmark survey of Peter M. Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan entitled, "Occupational Changes in a Generation." One objective of this project is the reestimation of the parameters of Blau and Duncan models for the process of social stratification--the intergenerational transmission of inequalities. Beyond replication for the purpose of analyzing social change, the design ensures more precise estimates of stratification for blacks, more complete information on factors alleged to affect inter- and intragenerational mobility, and rudimentary estimates of differential stratification for married men and women currently living with their spouses.

DESIGN FOR A REPLICATE STUDY OF SOCIAL MOBILITY IN THE UNITED STATES

In the early 1960s Professors Peter M. Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan initiated a major sample survey of the extent and sources of social mobility in the United States. Entitled "Occupational Changes in a Generation" (OCG), their survey was carried out as an adjunct to the monthly Current Population Survey (CPS), which in March of 1962 elicited data on fertility, education, income, and employment. Using a two-page mail-back questionnaire from which supplementary details about socioeconomic origins, residential background, and spouse characteristics were ascertained, Blau and Duncan were able to carry out an extensive analysis of the processes of status attainment and social mobility in an unusually large (by social science standards) cross-section sample of the American population.

We are presently engaged in a replication and extension of the 1962 OCG survey for which the field work will be carried out in 1973. In this paper our purpose is to present the major features of our study design and, in so doing, to give particular attention to problems in achieving a strict replication. Our concept of a strict replication is taken from Duncan (1969; 1970) and denotes a reapplication of the same measurement instruments, according to the same techniques of sampling, to an equivalently defined population as in a baseline study; we differentiate a strict replication from a restudy, in which one or more elements of the original design has been compromised. The idea of replicating the OCG survey has received some attention in the recent literature on social reporting, not only because of the quality and importance of the baseline measurements, but

also because the model-building strategy employed in analyses of the 1962 data seems especially likely to yield useful social indicators (see Land, 1971, and his introductory chapter of this volume). In an agenda on "Social Reporting for the 1970s" prepared for the Commission on Federal Statistics, Sheldon, Land, and Bauer recommend "the replication of the Occupational Changes in a Generation survey in 1972 and the repetition of the survey on at least a decennial basis" (1971:418). In arguing for a replication Sheldon, Land, and Bauer:

> First of all, the survey was conducted in 1962 which makes the data nearly a decade old. Second, this had been a decade of broadened governmental activities to influence the distribution of opportunities throughout the society, particularly with regard to racial and ethnic minorities. Therefore, it is a matter of considerable urgency to ascertain the effects, if any, of such activities on social mobility. Finally, excellent though the survey was by comparative standards, it could certainly be improved in both its execution and analysis if repeated today.

With regard to the feasibility of replicating the OCG survey in order to measure trends in stratification, Otis Dudley Duncan has written (1968: 716):

> We are now in a position to argue that any real change in the degree of stratification, or in correlations between variables implicated in the process of stratification, provided the change is large enough to be interesting, can be detected by repeated surveys, provided there is rigorous standardization of concepts,

scales, and survey techniques. Thus, I would urge that high priority be given to a replication of the OCG survey in 1972 (to take advantage of the convenience of a ten-year interval). In all relevant particulars, the survey should repeat the procedures used ten years earlier. This would not preclude experimentation with new questions, alternative measures of occupational status and so forth, provided that these are handled as additions to the replication and not as substitutes for it.

While the time is already past when we might have enjoyed the convenience of replication at a ten-year interval, in other respects we do hope to fulfill the recommendations cited above.

The 1962 Survey: Design

The target population of the 1962 OCG survey was males 20 to 64 years old in the civilian noninstitutional population in March 1962 (including as eligible about 900,00 Armed Forces personnel living with families on military posts in the United States or off posts in civilian quarters). Details of the design and procedures of the CPS in 1962 have been described elsewhere (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1963; 1967). Suffice it to say that the stratified, multi-stage cluster sample included more than 35,000 occupied dwelling units or households which contained about 25,000 eligible males. By March of 1973 the design of the CPS sample will have changed in several respects. Major changes include a substantial increase in the size of the sample, reduction in the size of sample segments, and use of 1970 Census materials in the selection of new primary sampling units, the preparation of lists of households, and the weighting of sample

data to represent the estimated current age-sex-color composition of the population. Since the primary effects of these changes are to improve the efficiency of the survey and to update procedures for adjusting the data to reflect changes in the composition of the population, they are not expected to affect replicability. Other changes in CPS procedures, discussed below, present greater obstacles to comparability.

CPS interviewers left behind a two-page questionnaire for each eligible male, and of these 83 percent were returned. The 20,700 respondents represented about 45 million males in the eligible population. Two items in the supplement (father's occupation and son's first full-time occupation) were subjected to a field edit, and the entire supplement was reviewed when the response to either of these items was deficient. Mail and personal follow-up calls were made, and in addition to the weights usually applied in the CPS to reduce sampling variability, the data were weighted to compensate for the effects of failure to return the supplement.

The 1962 Survey: Summary of Major Findings

Analyses of the 1962 OCG data advanced the ability of students of stratification to describe and analyze the processes of inter- and intra-generational mobility.[1] We have learned, for example, that the flow of manpower from social origins to social destinations (father to son occupational mobility), for the 45 million males represented in these data, was comprised primarily of small upward and downward movements (in terms of the status ranking of occupations). Despite a large amount of upward mobility, the patterns of recruitment to occupations in adulthood and of the supply from origin sectors were not random. Independent professionals, proprietors, and farmers in 1962 displayed a marked tendency to "inherit"

the self-employed occupations of their fathers. On the other hand, the three lowest (status) white-collar occupational groups (clerical, retail sales, and service) and the two lowest blue-collar categories (both nonfarm labor) both recruited extensively from other occupational statuses in the paternal generation and were sources of supply (from the paternal generation) to other (destination) statuses in the filial generation. Patterns of inter-generational supply and recruitment appeared to be reflecting shifts in the structure of the labor force, as for example in the expansion of the lower white-collar occupational sector.

On balance, the net upward direction of inter-generational mobility was a function of short-distance movements (in the socioeconomic space of rank-ordered occupational statuses) induced in part by structural expansion and supported by semi-permeable boundaries between the farm and the manual labor sectors and between the blue-collar and white-collar sectors. These semi-permeable boundaries between "classes" permitted upward mobility from one sector to another but inhibited downward mobility. Whether the pattern and degree of upward mobility is a function of historical trends (that is, period-specific differential fertility rates and farm to nonfarm migration rates) is a matter for future study; this is an example of the type of trend issue to which our research is designed to speak.

Although the OCG research is important for its description of inter-generational mobility for the selected age cohorts as of 1962, perhaps the more fundamental contribution to the study of stratification (and indirectly to public policy) follows from the Blau and Duncan analysis

of the process of status attainment. The latter is differentiated from mobility analysis in that the process of status attainment focuses the analyst's attention on the degree to which the status attainments of the son depend upon the statuses of his father, and on the variables which intervene between origin and destination statuses to explain the effect of paternal achievements on filial achievements. Mobility analysis, on the other hand, does not typically decompose the movement between statuses into its constituent elements, thereby limiting the understanding of how vertical circulation is facilitated or thwarted by events and conditions in one's social past and throughout the life cycle.

With regard to the decomposition of paternal on filial occupational achievement, Blau and Duncan specified a causal model of the process of inter-generational status attainments by ordering status events in the life cycle as in Figure 1 and by estimating the dependence relationships through a series of recursive regression equations. These methods provided for a quantitative assessment of: the antecedent conditions of socioeconomic status achievements, the relative importance of social origins, and of later achieved statuses (that is, education) for these socioeconomic attainments.

From their basic model, Blau and Duncan concluded that years of formal schooling accounted for nearly all of the direct effects of paternal occupational status and education on son's occupational standing as of 1962. Moreover, son's education and the number of siblings in his family of origin explained virtually all of the variance in occupational status between the farm and the nonfarm background subgroups (since those of farm origin

attained fewer years of schooling, an outcome, in part, of higher levels of fertility in the parental generation and the lower socioeconomic background statuses associated with the farm residential sector).

Aside from education, another intervening variable between social origins and social destinations (see Figure 1) was first full-time job after the completion of schooling (the measurement of this variable entailed knotty problems and possible reporting errors). Holding constant social background statuses, education was more influential in determining 1962 occupational statuses for each of the selected age cohorts than was first job, although there was some fluctuation in the net regression coefficients across cohorts. Ignoring distortions owing to differential reporting and measurement errors, these fluctuations in the cohort models reflected both historical aspects of the respective cohort experiences and differential durations of full-time labor force tenure. In the 1962 cross-section these effects could not be separated directly, but in the proposed trend data, such an issue becomes tractable.

The OCG data permitted an examination of ethnic and minority group achievements based on the Blau and Duncan model of the process of status attainment. First and second generation immigrants to the U.S. differed (in 1962) in the degree to which their national origin backgrounds accounted for the variance in their respective socioeconomic attainments in their adopted country. For native sons of foreign parentage, national origin was less a factor in educational and occupational status attainment than for their fathers. Still, among these native white males of nonfarm background (determined by paternal employment in farm or nonfarm occupations

while son was about age 16), the Russian-Americans surpassed all other ethnic subgroups, while the Latin Americans fell below all others in educational and occupational attainments. By and large the variance between these white ethnic groups could be attributed to social origin differentials and subsequent achievements, leaving little support for the theory of pervasive discrimination in the distribution of education and occupation on grounds of national ancestry. Moreover, that both sons of immigrants and native males who had migrated from their regions of birth enjoyed greater social mobility than natives who had remained in their natal environs attested to the possiblity of achievement and assimilation for white males, irrespective of national origins.

However, there was no similar evidence for the operation of vertical circulation based on universalistic criteria in the OCG data for nonwhites (hereafter, blacks). Neither background characteristics (paternal statuses and Southern natality) nor educational differentials were capable of accounting for the relative socioeconomic underachievements of blacks vis-á-vis whites of similar characteristics; these differences were greater at the higher levels of completed schooling. While for white minorities there was not abundant evidence for a "cycle of poverty," there was greater plausibility for such a condition among the black population in 1962: for each of the achieved statuses of education, occupation, and income, there remained proportions of black-white differences which could not be explained by regional, social-background, and intellectual characteristics, and prior achieved status. In short, in the 1962 data there was evidence for cumulative racial (but not national origin) discrimination over the life cycle.[2]

Policy Implications

Following Sheldon and Land (1972:139) we may say that social indicators derived from OCG data (past and future) are mainly "analytic" or "descriptive," rather than "problem oriented or directly policy-oriented." That is, they "serve as components of explicit conceptual and causal models" of segments of the social system and are "intended primarily to describe the state of society and changes taking place within it," while their utility for "direct use in policy and program decisions" is limited.

This is not merely a euphemistic way of saying the OCG data are irrelevant in policy formation. Like Blau and Duncan (1967:1), we believe that our findings "will be helpful to policy-makers and the interested public in formulating appropriate action programs and clarifying public controversy." We think that our findings will be useful to policy-makers and others by helping them to assess the opportunities which are available to major population subgroups and the factors which limit or enhance those opportunities. Such assessments are not presently available from any other source with the scope and detail made possible by the combination of the original and replicated OCG surveys, and we believe they can be an important input to processes of setting goals and strategies for the enhancement of opportunity.

At the same time we do not wish to overstate the utility of our research in the formation of policy. Other large-scale social research has engendered great disappointment by claiming more immediate relevance to the formation of policy than was justified by the facts, and we do not propose to repeat such claims. For example, we think it most unlikely that our work will lead directly to the implementation of specific social programs with predictable

cost and effectiveness. The major policy value of our research lies in its potential contributions--substantive and methodological--to the construction of a time-series of indicators (both descriptive and analytic) of the distribution of social and economic opportunity in the United States. Specifically, there are five areas in which we think our study can contribute to policy formation.

(a) In the assessment of widespread beliefs about equality of opportunity and factors affecting it. We think that the "debunking" function of OCG findings should not be underrated. For example, findings from the 1962 study cast a great deal of doubt on the utility of concepts of a "cycle" or "culture" of poverty, and more specifically on the suggestion that family instability was the major source of white-black achievement differentials. Other pertinent 1962 findings include the fact that excess fertility in the family of orientation is not a major factor in black-white occupation and income differentials in adulthood and that discrimination in the labor market is a source of a larger share of white-black occupation and income differentials than is differential educational attainment. We expect our replication to further validate and refine these findings and to produce new findings about specific variables in the process of achievement which are relevant to public policy. For example, we shall obtain measurements of the role of military service, union membership and interruptions in schooling on the inheritance of social status across generations. In a sense such measurements provide "cost-free" estimates of the possible value of successful intervention in the achievement process.

(b) In locating and defining the problems of specific population subgroups. We think that our measurements on women and on ethnic-racial groups--especially on blacks and on the Spanish-speaking--and on rural out-migrants will be especially pertinent here. From a policy perspective the outcome of these measurements in younger cohorts, inasmuch as their experiences incorporate recent trends, will be especially interesting.

(c) In providing an overall model of the process of social and economic achievement which can serve as a frame of reference for discussions about specific aspects of that process. We expect to refine and elaborate the "basic" model of occupational achievement proposed by Blau and Duncan. We think the value of operating within that kind of explicit model is amply illustrated by findings like those cited under (a) above, and at a more general level, by other examples of social indicator models in this volume.

(d) In providing a set of current trend estimates on major features of the process of social achievement. We think that trend measurements will be of value in the process of policy formation, even where the allocation of responsibility for specific changes (or the lack thereof) is a matter of judgment, rather than proof. It has been our impression that the value of single-time measurements, like the survey undertaken for Equality of Educational Opportunity, is lower because many policy judgments must rest on inherently unsupportable assumptions about what earlier surveys might have shown. Fortunately, the design of OCG permits us to obtain implicit trend measurements in a single-time survey, to replicate and validate earlier trend measurements of the same kind, to obtain benchmark trend measurements on additional variables, and to extend the existing "stock" of trend measurements by one more point in time.

(e) In improving the measurement of processes of social and economic achievement. We think that our investment in improved measurement techniques--and also in new techniques of data reduction and analysis--will be quite as important for the policy applications of our findings as for their purely academic uses. We think our proposed innovations can contribute both to the quality and legitimacy of the information we can supply and to the development of methods for future replications and other related studies.

For example, the questions of poverty and its possible transmission between generations are interesting research issues for the student of American society and of its distribution of rewards, services, and life changes. OCG data bearing on these issues can also serve as a baseline for a series of social reports on the trends of opportunity and socioeconomic well-being in this country. Knowing that as of 1962, growing up in an intact (rather than a broken) family provides from 0.6 to 1.0 year more of schooling for young boys, that increasing their fathers' occupational statuses by 10 Socioeconomic Index (Duncan, 1961: Chapter 6) units adds another 0.3 years, and that limiting the number of their potential siblings by one would increase their formal education by yet another 0.2 years is at least potentially useful for those whose function is to write public policy. Being able to calculate the costs of discrimination in the distribution of education and occupational status (among men of different skin colors but otherwise equivalent) in terms of dollars of earnings not only speaks to the credibility of academic arguments regarding the pervasiveness of a "culture of poverty" for all of "the poor" (regardless of skin color), but it provides statistical estimates of the cost (ceteris

paribus) of being black. Moreover, the latter estimates could be used to calculate the probable gains to black citizens, and to the nation as a whole, of ameliorative programs and of alternative interventions in the processes of status attainment.

A detailed analysis of cohort-specific attainment processes for whites and blacks during the past decade would constitute an important input to social policy formulation. After all, one could argue that the social legislation of the late 1950s and the 1960s should by now be producing effects on the distribution of statuses and life chances between racial and ethnic minorities, at least for selected age cohorts. Although the effects of specific programs are unquestionably difficult to disentangle, one would expect prima facie the effects of discrimination to be less costly on younger cohorts of minorities in 1972 than in 1962. If, when compared with the OCG baseline, replication data were to indicate no diminution in the cost to younger cohorts of being black, one might regard this as a relevant datum for the evaluation of current public policies. Regardless of the outcome of a replicate study, we argue that such an undertaking is policy-related, at least to the degree that the maximization of opportunity for all Americans is still a viable societal goal.

In this context, we feel that an intergenerational focus is an appropriate framework for estimating the degree of opportunity (alternatively, the degree of status inheritance). We argue that attention directed at the mechanisms by which statuses (including "poverty") are transmitted between generations captures the essence of the process of stratification, or social

mobility, as this process is experienced differently by various age cohorts or subpopulations. By calculating cohort- and period-specific data for intergenerational status transmission, the relationships of cause and effect, of policies and social conditions, and of events and populations are rendered more tractable. We would argue further that data so derived are more useful in assessing our abilities to reach societal goals (that is, equality of opportunity) than are aggregate income and family labor force statistics for short-term movements into and out of "poverty."

Our replication of the 1962 OCG study will provide a valuable cross-sectional survey of these issues (and others) for the new decade, and both cross-sections will be a rich resource for information concerning the stratification of American society, as experienced by specific age cohorts of males. For example, if we accept the basic causal model adduced in Figure 1, we can construct tables of statistical estimates like Table 1 (containing estimates of coefficients in the basic model of achievement for four age cohorts of nonfarm men in 1962) for both 1962 and 1972. Our replication is designed so changes in the coefficients over the decade indicate real shifts in the processes of status attainment. Changes in coefficients for the age group 25-34 in both years will be indicative of inter-period shifts in the parameters of stratification for persons at equivalent stages of the life cycle; associated with fluctuations in the coefficients for an aging cohort (for example ages 25-34 in 1962 and ages 36-45 in 1973) will be the effects of maturation and its location in history. In short, our replication will allow a duplication of the types

Table 1 about here

of analyses summarized above from the OCG study in a second cross-section, but in conjunction with the 1962 OCG, the 1972 data will introduce new capacities for the assessment of trend over the decade.

We understand the net result of our replication to be the estimation of a set of parameters for the processes of stratification which have the status of social indicators. These indicators, be they single coefficients such as those in Table 1 or entire systems of equations (or their graphic counterparts, as in Figure 1), delineate social conditions in the two cross-sections, define lingering and new social problems, and trace social trends over the decade in the intergenerational mobility processes, "which by social engineering may hopefully be guided toward social goals formulated by social planning" (paraphrase of Stuart Rice's ,1967, definition of social indicators from the form cited in Duncan, 1969:2). We concur with Duncan (1969) that replication studies of the sort permitted by the OCG cross-section and the provision of analytic indicators of states and trends are important "next steps" for the social sciences. It is our view that replications of baseline studies of the variety proposed here not only enrich the context wherein a system of social accounts (social reports) is possible, but these endeavors also serve to consolidate, integrate, and advance our social science qua science. The latter functions ensue from the demands imposed by the goal of social accounting--demands for the standardization of measurement, for reference to clearly defined populations and subpopulations, and for the storage of archival data in accessible forms for the myriad purposes of secondary analysis--as well as from the sheer accumulation of knowledge so derived.

The 1973 Study: Design[3]

Three major data collection operations are included in the design of the 1973 replication and extension of OCG (hereafter, OCG-II). The first is a national survey, carried out in conjunction with the March 1973 CPS, which will be comparable to the March 1962 CPS and OCG survey, except that blacks and persons of Spanish origin or descent will be oversampled. The second phase of the field work is a statewide survey in Wisconsin, also to be carried out in the spring of 1973. The third phase comprises several efforts to ascertain response validity and reliability, which uses subsamples of both the national and statewide surveys. We shall describe these three phases of data collection in the order listed above.

1. The national survey: data collection

In the national survey we aim to achieve a strict replication of the 1962 study within the limits of desirability and feasibility. We have sacrificed comparability grudgingly: where the design could be improved, and where the 1962 design is so defective that replication did not seem worthwhile (as in the measurement of first job); where we had evidence that failure to replicate exactly had no effects on comparability (see Duncan, 1968:715), and where the alternative was not to do the study at all. In some ways failure to replicate is inevitable. For example, given identical procedures, the upward intercohort trend in educational attainment would be expected to improve the reporting of both contemporaneous and retrospective items. Likewise, while the field work again was carried out by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, it will be impossible to replicate 1962 procedural and organizational conditions exactly (see Thompson, 1970; Shapiro and

Thompson, 1972). With one important exception, the coding of occupation, we could not expect to exercise any control over procedures in the March CPS which have changed in the past eleven years.

One major change in the method of data collection in the national survey which has been dictated by changes in the CPS design was that items in the OCG-II supplement were ascertained by means of a mail-out, mail-back questionnaire in late August or early September of 1973, rather than by a leave-behind mail-back operation in March. While we would have preferred to retain the 1962 procedure, the Bureau of the Census assured us that a mail-out survey of experienced respondents with telephone and personal follow-up by CPS interviewers would yield data of coverage and quality comparable to that obtained in the 1962 survey. Our pretest experience substantiates this confidence.

In addition to the usual labor force information the March CPS household interview contains a supplement in which a variety of socioeconomic information is ascertained, for example, educational attainment, work experience, and the several components of income. It is this supplementary information in the household record which makes the March CPS so attractive as a sample frame. Because of the pattern of rotation into and out of the CPS sample, according to which each selected housing unit is in the sample for the same four months during each of two consecutive years, there is a 75 percent overlap from month to month in the composition of the CPS sample. In principle, the linkage of household records from month to month permits the construction of lengthy records without placing the burden of a lengthy interview on respondents. However, in order to produce a larger volume

of linked records, the length of the March interview has been increased, and supplements to interviews in adjacent months have been eliminated. Thus, the Bureau of the Census is concerned about demands already placed on respondents by March interviews and is understandably reluctant to burden them with additional questionnaires at that time.

With the OCG field operation carried out in August and September, no respondent was contacted for the first time within two months of his rotation out of the CPS sample or within two months of his rotation back in. Thus, one advantage to the new design was a lessening of concern within the Bureau of the Census about the possible effects of the OCG questionnaire on returning members of the CPS sample. An attendant disadvantage to the revised design is that the Bureau could not undertake a personal follow-up of movers between March and September who leave their March primary sampling unit of residence (usually a county or a large metropolitan area). We gauge this to be a relatively minor problem because telephone and mail follow-ups were made, and most movers remained in the same primary sampling unit.

2. The national survey: sample design

Changes in the sample design for the 1973 OCG were dictated by changes in the CPS design over the past decade, to which we have already referred, and also by our interest in oversampling blacks and persons of Spanish origin or descent. Because the CPS sample has been expanded to include 45,000 household interviews, which yield an average of about one eligible respondent per household, we obtain about 37,500 completed supplements (if 1962 response rates to the supplement are maintained). The larger total sample will permit

us to undertake detailed analyses which could not be contemplated even with a sample as large as that obtained in 1962. For example, we shall be able to use a more detailed occupational classification than the 17-category scheme used in 1962 for basic occupational mobility analyses. We will be able to talk with more confidence about cohorts defined by 5-year age intervals, and we will be able to make some inter-cohort comparisons within population subgroups defined by region of origin, nativity, national origin, race, and other variables.

Of these possibilities the most important may be that of producing accurate estimates of parameters of the stratification process for cohorts within the black population. The interpretation of 1962 OCG data was frustrated at many points by the large sampling errors of estimates pertaining to the black population. We thought it especially important that accurate estimates for cohorts of blacks be obtained because of the possibility that the parameters of the stratification process for blacks may have changed within the past decade. While the expansion of the CPS sample increases the number of black respondents from about 2000 to 3500, we thought that estimates of sufficient accuracy could be obtained only by increasing the sample of blacks to the point where we will have at least 1500 respondents per 10-year age group, that is, by again doubling the size of the black sample. Our plan for supplementing blacks was to draw about 4000 persons from the October 1972 CPS sample, from households where the head is Negro. In March of 1973, CPS interviewers visited about 5000 such households, as identified in October, to screen for eligible black males and to elicit personal (or telephone, where necessary) interviews, on the substance of the March CPS schedule and the OCG supplement.

Because of the widespread belief (supported by some presumptive evidence in the 1962 data, namely B. Duncan and Duncan, 1968) that persons of Spanish origin face obstacles to social achievement which are similar to those faced by blacks, we increased the number of such persons in the sample up to the approximate number of blacks, 2000, included in the 1962 sample. Households of Spanish origin were identified from the October 1972 CPS and added to the March 1973 CPS sample; these households were contacted for CPS labor force, income and work experience information as part of the regular CPS survey in March. Along with the basic sample from the March CPS frame, eligible males of Spanish origin were mailed the OCG questionnaire in late August or September. We gained an additional 2000 men of Spanish origin by this means.

3. The national survey: procedural changes and replication

An opportunity to measure the aggregate effect of procedural changes follows from the fact that most cohorts covered in the 1962 study also appear in the replication. By ascertaining occupation in March 1962 we will be able to replicate the findings as of 1962 for three of the ten-year cohorts covered in 1962, subject only to the effects of procedural change, cohort attrition, and differential recall. As to errors of recall of occupations five or ten years in the past, we have obtained one measurement which suggests that such errors are not large in comparison with errors affecting contemporaneous reports of occupations. For employed men, 19 years and older in 1968, who recalled having an occupation in July 1963, the correlation coefficient between recalled occupation and actual CPS report of occupation in 1963 was .80, when major occupation categories were scored using Duncan's (1961) index of socioeconomic status (calculated from

Walsh and Buckholdt, 1970). This may be compared with a correlation of .86 reported by Siegel and Hodge (1968) for all males in a Census-CPS match.

Our capacity to achieve replication will be enhanced by our access to the 1962 unit record tapes. We shall be able to improve comparability by changing tabulation specifications for the 1962 data, as well as by choosing those for the 1973 data. Our access to both sets of unit record tapes will also make it possible to use new coding and scaling systems, like the prestige scores for all occupations developed at NORC (Siegel, 1971).

Our effort to achieve comparability is inconvenienced in one minor respect because the replication was carried out in 1973, rather than in 1972 as we had originally hoped. Because each cohort is 10 years older 10 years later, a 1972 replication would have permitted us to use the same age-breaks for purposes of inter-cohort, inter-period, age-constant comparisons as for intra-cohort inter-period comparisons. In order to make both kinds of comparisons with the 1973 replication, we will have to use two sets of age-breaks and extend the coverage of the survey by one year. For example, to compare the achievements of men aged 55-64 in the two periods, we need only to use the same age-breaks in both samples. However, men aged 45-54 in 1962 will be 56-65 in 1973, so to make true intra-cohort comparisons we have to shift the age-breaks and to include 65 year-olds in the eligible population.

Our twin goals of extension and replication of the substance of Blau and Duncan benchmark survey have lengthened the OCG questionnaire (described subsequently). The pretest draft comprised eight legal-sized pages, compared to the two pages of the 1962 OCG supplement. We share with the Bureau of the Census some concern about the effect of questionnaire length on response rates

and quality. Consequently, the pretest was designed to test two forms of the questionnaire--the long form, which we designed, and the original 1962 instrument. The pretest, conducted in Chicago, Houston, and San Antonio in the fall of 1972, provided limited comparisons of the two instruments with regard to effects of length, layout formats, and deliberate changes in selected items which had been regarded as defective in the 1962 (short) form. These issues of departure from strict replication are reported below in the section, "questionnaire design."

As noted in a previous section, the supplement items on father's occupation and son's first job after leaving school were edited in the field in 1962. Questionnaires where either of those items were left blank or did not permit coding at the level of major occupation groups were rejected and assigned to interviewers for follow-up during April. Exact replication of these procedures should present no difficulty.

Another procedural source of noncomparability is the change in methods for allocating values for missing data on March CPS items. The Bureau of the Census uses a "hot deck" technique to allocate responses for items with missing data (Levine, 1967). This procedure involves the creation of a matrix whose cells represent subpopulations likely to differ in respect to the item for which values are to be allocated. After a "cold start," in which average values are entered in the matrix and substituted for missing data for persons in the cell, an observed value for the first person in a cell with data present is recorded, and that value is substituted for missing data for persons in the same cell until another record with a response is processed, at which point the new value becomes the proxy for missing data. The procedure has some tendency to distort analytical results, because

variables assigned by the method are related to other measured variables only through their mutual relations with variables used to construct the matrix. While this procedure will be followed in 1973 as it was in 1962, the variables entering the matrixes have changed, with effects on the data which are presently unknown to us. One bright element in this picture is that the 1973 tape will have allocated items "flagged," so we shall be able to assess some of the effects of allocation on our findings.

Changes in concepts or questions relating to March CPS items which will be used extensively in OCG-II analyses present an especially difficult problem. For example, the wording of the income questions has been changed significantly, and work experience in the preceding year, which is used in the allocation of income nonresponses, is now ascertained in March, rather than in February. We can think of no remedy for differences in the measurement of income between the two surveys beyond reliance on professional opinion as to the extent and character of those differences.

In the case of occupation, which we view as the most important concept in our research design, the problem of establishing comparability is superficially greater than in the case of income, but we think we have achieved a satisfactory resolution of it. In the period since 1962 there have been a couple of minor changes in the series of questions used to ascertain occupation, industry, and class of worker. For example, the category "government" under class of worker has been split into local, state, and federal categories. More importantly, persons reporting self-employment are asked whether their own business is incorporated, and, if so, they are reclassified as private wage and salary workers. One major change in the

the series is the addition of the question, "What were. . .'s most important activities or duties?" Responses to this question are reported to have a large effect on the classification of self-employed craftsmen, who are frequently misclassified as managers but will not be classified in the appropriate craft category unless their major activity actually is management. In addition to these changes occupations are now being coded in the 1970 Census classification, which represents a substantial departure from that used in 1960, and in the March 1962 CPS (Greene, Priebe, and Morrison, 1969; Bregger, 1971).

After considering a variety of alternatives we decided to have each occupation item presented in its up-to-date form and coded twice: once to 1970 specifications by the regular CPS coders; a second time to 1960 specifications, ignoring the item on major duties and activities, by a staff of coders specially trained to use 1960 Census materials. By this device we achieve replication of procedures employed in the baseline study, insure consistency in the classification of occupations between those ascertained in the March 1973 CPS and those in the OCG-II supplement, and easy replication of current (1970) measurement procedures in the next OCG survey.

4. The Wisconsin survey

The State of Wisconsin survey was fielded in March-April 1973 through the University of Wisconsin Survey Research Laboratory. We conducted telephone interviews of about forty minutes' duration with 1200 white males in the age range 20-65, and personal interviews of about an hour's length with 800 black males in the same age range. Because of the nearly complete concentration of the state's small black population in Milwaukee, virtually

all of the black respondents were drawn from that area. White respondents were sampled in accordance with a stratified random sampling of telephone numbers from throughout the state. One function of the state survey was to update and improve a time series on socioeconomic achievement in Wisconsin which began in 1961 and to make possible state-national comparisons (say) of labor force participation and returns to education. To accomplish this end, the State questionnaire contained all relevant items from the March 1973 CPS interview, in addition to items constituting the national OCG supplement. In this survey we could ascertain religious affiliation, index social participation, and measure attitudes which were either practically or politically infeasible in the context of the national study design. Finally, the statewide survey provided excellent opportunities for the assessment of data quality, especially the quality of proxy reports of parental statuses, as discussed subsequently.

In its own way the State of Wisconsin survey is a benchmark study, owing to its concurrence with and its replication of our national survey. These data are a "splice" between the national time series and what could become a statewide one. The items unique to the state questionnaire were chosen to enrich our understanding of nonstatus or nonsocioeconomic consequences of social mobility. We included consequences such as mobility ideology, work ethic, alienation, voting, social involvements, and psychological well-being; clearly some of these "consequences" may be "causes" of mobility. Our purpose, in any event, is to integrate two types of analytic indicators: (1) those which describe the process of stratification in structural terms (for example, Figure 1 of this paper) and which can be normed against national parameter estimates for the same models, and (2) those indicator models which portray

social and psychological processes. Such an integration of models enriches our knowledge of how opportunities for social mobility are related to both social and psychological integration.

5. Measurement of response error

One of the criticisms made of the 1962 OCG was that estimates of the rigidity of the stratification system were biased downward by virtue of random measurement error, particularly in respect to parental characteristics (Bowles, 1972). While we are not inclined to agree with Bowles' estimates of the extent of the problem, we think that it will be useful to assemble a variety of data on the extent and character of measurement error and to make use of it in the course of our analyses.

One incidental check on reliability will be provided by ascertaining educational attainment in the OCG supplement (as part of the series to ascertain first job after leaving school) as well as in the March CPS. More important, we shall obtain a work tape from the regular CPS reinterview program following the March CPS, and the Bureau of the Census will reinterview samples of 500 whites and 500 blacks on selected CPS and OCG items following completion of the field work for the supplementary survey. Approximately a dozen variables will be included in the reinterview schedule.

In connection with the Wisconsin survey we validate son's reports of parents' statuses using a match to decennial Census records. A similar exercise was carried out in 1962 using data from the Chicago pretest (Blau and Duncan, 1967: Appendix D), but the validity estimate obtained for father's occupation was clearly a lower bound because of the time lead or lag between the son's sixteenth birthday (the temporal referent of father's

occupation) and the nearest Census data. We asked respondents to report the name, address, and occupation of their fathers (or heads of family) as of the census date nearest their sixteenth birthday, and we validate those reports against the Census records. Matches are effected by Census personnel in order to preserve confidentiality, and for the same reason identifying information will be removed from our tape before it is returned to us for analysis. The Census match may be used to validate education and income as well as occupation. Finally, for younger cohorts in the Wisconsin sample it is possible to validate reports of parental occupation and income against state income tax records, which are accessible for legitimate research purposes.

Questionnaire Design

In its original draft, our pretest questionnaire was more than four times the length of the less than two-page form used in 1962. Greater length followed naturally from two factors: first, our desire to ascertain more details on family of origin (for example, mother's education, family income, education in the sibship), education (for example, name of last school attended, major field of study, interruptions in schooling), and other career contingencies (for example, active service in military); second, our inability (for logistical reasons cited previously) to administer the OCG supplement until some five or six months after the March CPS survey. The latter delay recommended our inclusion of some items which were redundant, given the CPS interview, but which we employed to filter respondents properly through the OCG questionnaire [for example, current (March) school enrollment

and years of school completed (in March) vis-á-vis first full-time civilian job after regular schooling]. Greater length in the questionnaire, especially a mail-out and return instrument, represented a potential compromise of comparability. To assay effects of this procedural change, we compared the pretest performances of the long (OCG-II) and short (OCG-I) forms described in a previous section.

We learned several things from the pretest. First, analysis of response rates to the long and short forms indicated a 9 percent difference--82 percent short and 73 percent long. Virtually all of this difference was attributable to refusals--5.7 percent short and 12.9 percent long--and the overall difference in rates remained constant over the course of follow-up phases. Consequently we eliminated some dozen items from the pretest draft and shortened the final questionnaire to just under eight pages of standard-sized (contrasted to legal-sized) paper.

Second, there were some few instances of "forms effects" between the long and short versions. For example, one item which appeared on both forms elicited whether or not the respondent was living with both parents most of the time up to age sixteen. The only difference between the items was in the manner of display on the printed pages. For whatever reason, more (statistically significant) respondents reported living in intact families to the long form (90 percent) than to the short form (84 percent), and the latter more closely corresponded to the estimate of this characteristic for March 1962. With some other variables which appeared on both forms (for example, father's education), we found no significant forms effects. In any case, we were unable to secure a restoration of questionnaire format according to the 1962 layout.

Third, we observed a low incidence of certain events and characteristics and an impressive high stability and certainty in the reports of selected background characteristics; these observations assisted us in identifying items to delete. While we would have liked to ascertain the effects of nonregular schooling (for example, business, technical, vocational, on-the-job formal training) on socioeconomic achievements, we were unable to justify the inclusion of these items on the basis of the relatively few respondents who has such training (fewer than 25 percent of all men on any single item). On the other hand, a question eliciting parental income at the time respondents were about sixteen years of age yielded substantial variance and a credible distribution over 14 dollar intervals. Further, there was only a single refusal, and the other unclassifiable responses were just over 11 percent of total responses, a rate which is comparable to those on other retrospective survey items. Another datum encouraged us to keep this item, and this information came form the 36 reinterviews taken about 2 months after the completion of the pretest. Of 34 respondents answering the parental income item, 28 reported exactly the same response in the mail survey and in the reinterview. Instances of "inconsistency" were reconciled in the context of reinterviews. One of the "inconsistent" respondents returned to his original report, three reconciled to categories adjacent to the original report, and two differed by two categories. When asked how certain the respondent was when he recorded his original report, 21 were "very certain," 4 were "mostly certain," and 9 were "mostly uncertain."

Our final questionnaire draft was eight pages of standard-sized paper. In order to overcome the remaining handicap of length, relative to our ability

to achieve a response rate of about 83 percent, we reorganized follow-up procedures and statements of introduction of the study both to interviewers and to respondents. Following the pretest, our optimism about the final response rate to a visually more compact eight-page booklet was not too shaken. A 1964 CPS-NORC study of young male veterans and nonveterans (Klassan, 1966) replicated several OCG supplement items and used similar data-collection procedures. With an eight-page questionnaire this survey achieved a response rate of 82.2 percent--essentially the same as that in the 1962 OCG--and correlations among original and achieved statuses in the 1964 sample were virtually identical to those in the relevant cohort in the 1962 study (Duncan, 1968:715). Still, we shortened to one week the interval between the initial OCG-II mailing and the first follow-up, a reminder postcard. After a second week, another questionnaire was mailed, followed a week later by an attempted telephone interview or personal interview for those without phones. Four weeks after initial mailing, not contacted nonrespondents were visited by a CPS interviewer. In cases where the respondent had moved to another PSU, materials were forwarded to an updated address or a telephone interview was attempted. Finally, the cover letters which introduced the study and the interviewer training manuals for the supplement were redesigned so as to state more clearly the objectives and values of the project and to differentiate it from regular CPS monthly labor surveys. The latter seemed important to the cooperation of sample cases which had just completed the rigors of the 4:8:4 CPS rotation. In short, the departure of our final draft from the length of the 1962 questionnaire was problematic, and we strove to overcome the potential negative effects of greater length on comparability.

The OCG-II questionnaire replicates all but three of the 1962 items. Auspices of schooling (for example, public or private) demostrated no significant effects in the analysis of the 1962 data and was deleted. (The reader is directed to tabulations of this schooling variable: cf. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, September 1964; and Beverly Duncan, 1965). The 1962 item on first full-time civilian job held after the respondent "left school" proved defective, inasmuch as a tabulation of age at first job by years of school completed identified a substantial minority of reports which could not have been first jobs but probably were jobs held prior to completing the highest grade of regular school (see Duncan, Featherman, and Duncan, 1972, Chapter 8). While retaining the concept of first job in the replicate study, we expanded the series of questions on education and the timing (dates) of schooling so as to eliminate respondents who would not appropriately be asked the first job question (for example, those currently enrolled in school) and to assist in the reconstruction of events surrounding the transition from school to work. Additionally, we rephrased the defective first job item in consonance with greater clarity. Finally, we modified the concept of "older brother's education" to "oldest brother's and youngest brother's educations" so as to increase the numbers of sibships for which we could calculate within-family variance in achievement.

New items on the OCG-II questionnaire were drawn usually from a pool of extant items which had appeared in Census questionnaires or in the context of large-scale sample surveys. Our intent was to employ items as instruments for our purposes only if we were aware of their performances

in similar populations. In the absence of useful replicates, we designed our own items. Table 2 lists the items appearing on the March 1973 CPS (using the most current information available at this writing) in comparison to the March 1962 CPS instrument; similar item comparisons describe the coextensiveness of the OCG supplements. (Copies of the OCG-II questionnaire and descriptions of the sources from which items were drawn are available upon request.)

Finally, it is important to emphasize the important way in which the information on occupation obtained in the OCG replication precludes comparability, short of special efforts to avert this outcome. All occupation items on the OCG-II questionnaire (for example, occupation, industry, and class of worker) are consistent with the current (1973) practices of the Bureau of the Census. While the phrasings of items are substantially identical to corresponding items from the 1962 study, the new regime collects additional, clarifying details (for example, "What are your most important activities and duties?") and classifies on the basis of expanded information into categories which cannot be reconciled to 1960 (1962) classifications. (The reader can find partial documentation of these technical and procedural changes in Greene, Priebe, and Morrison, 1969; Bregger, 1971; and Shapiro and Thompson, 1972.) Therefore, the 1962 study and the 1973 replicate would ordinarily not be comparable with respect to reports of occupation and industry, despite the apparent similarities of corresponding questionnaire items. This difficulty is remedied by our strategy of employing two sets of

Table 2 about here

coders, each trained in different classification systems. When classifying into the 1960 scheme, coders will be instructed to disregard (to physically cover over) all items of clarifying information which would not have appeared as part of the 1962 reports. In large measure, the success of our efforts to replicate hinges on our ability to reproduce the 1960 (1962) treatment of occupation reports.

Analysis prospectus

Anyone familiar with the Blau and Duncan benchmark study can anticipate our major plan for analysis. Our first efforts will summarize the new cross-section as a series of descriptive and analytic indicators. We shall reestimate all the models for the process of stratification which appeared in The American Occupational Structure, and the inter- and intra-generational mobility matrices by cohort and color will be scrutinized to describe the patterns of supply and recruitment as of 1973.

Naturally, our second major thrust will be into the data on trends--or changes in mobility regimes (for example, inter- and intrageneration outflow matrices) and parameters of the process of stratification (for example, coefficients in models such as Figure 1 of this chapter). We are most eager to analyze these data, inasmuch as we have detected trends in mobility matrices for men in the experienced civilian labor force in the period 1940-1970 (Hauser and Featherman, 1973 and for blacks and whites in the period 1962-72 (Hauser and Featherman, 1972). To cite only the most dominant trend, there has been a shift away from self-employment in professional occupations and as proprietors. Concurrently, employment in salaried professional, managerial, and administrative occupations has increased. The greatest bulk of these

changes in intergeneration mobility has been effected in the transition probabilities linking first full-time jobs to current jobs, and not in (a) the outflow matrices joining social origins (father's occupation) with son's first full-time job, or (b) the composition of social origins, as given by the vector of sons by fathers' occupations.

While we have confidence in these trend estimates, we know only the most gross details. Our method of estimation employed the 1962 OCG mobility matrices and origin vectors for selected age cohorts. Applying the outflow matrix of men aged 35-44 in 1962 to the origin vector of men aged 25-34 in 1962 generated an expected destination vector for the younger men in 1972, when they were age 35-44. By comparing this expected vector with an observed occupation distribution of men aged 35-44, as published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from the March 1972 CPS, we estimated change in the outflow matrix. On the assumption of no change in outflow or transition matrices, there would be no difference between observed and expected distributions. Since we could not observe the 1972 matrices directly, we ascertained change indirectly by this technique. When we can analyze the cells of our March 1973 mobility matrices, we shall know more about trends, as for example, if the exit from self-employment is linked to entrance into the salaried class of worker, by men leaving proprietorships to become salaried managers and executives.

Our third analysis phase refocuses on the 1973 cross-section, elaborating the models of phase one by including new measurements and estimating new models which incorporate assumptions about errors in variables. An important aspect of this phase is our effort to establish both baseline

and trend estimates for married women for a basic model of the process of stratification (cf. Figure 1 given previously). The Bureau of the Census will supply us with a unit-record tape for 1962 which merges all information elicited by the March CPS for males eligible for the OCG supplement (including all information on employment, income, labor force experience, and education for spouses living with these men) with the data derived from the OCG supplement itself. For married women living with spouses aged 20-64 in the civilian noninstitutional population in March 1962, we can calculate basic regression models linking social statuses of parents to a woman's education, occupation, and earnings. The same (and slightly more elaborate) models of achievement can be calculated for the population defined above but from the 1973 cross-section. In addition to trend analyses, we anticipate examining the means by which the attainments of women depend upon the careers of their husbands, and vice versa, although this is a topic of our investigation in other and more detailed data files. Perforce, the OCG analyses of stratification for females will be limited; they do promise to be important analytic indicators, however, and critical first steps in a long-needed time-series.

Summary

Replication of the benchmark survey, "Occupational Changes in a Generation," will make possible the measurement of trends in numerous indicators of social stratification. This paper has outlined the design of a replication and extension and discussed aspects of study design, questionnaire construction, field operations, and data processing which bear on the problem of comparability.

In the initial survey, carried out in conjunction with the March 1962 Current Population Survey, interviewers left behind a two-page supplementary questionnaire to be mailed in by males aged 20-64 in the civilian noninstitutional population of the U.S. The supplement asked about socioeconomic and structural characteristics of both the respondent's family of orientation and his wife's family; nativity and size of place or origin; and first job and age at first job. Returns were obtained from 20,700 respondents, 83 percent of those eligible, and responses on the supplement were linked with selected items in the March CPS record. Analyses of the 1962 data have yielded measurements of occupational recruitment and supply; the causal nexus linking family background, educational attainment, and occupational achievement; and the sources of color and ethnic differentials in education, occupation, and earnings. Numerous trend measurements were obtained within the cross-section survey by means of inter-cohort comparisons.

The 1973 survey also is linked to the March CPS, but changes in the respondent workload precluded use of a leave-behind instrument: a mail-out, mail-back questionnaire was sent out in August of 1973. Because the CPS sample has increased, the total number of respondents has more than doubled, and Negroes and persons of Spanish origin are over-sampled by about a factor of two. A separate but parallel survey of men in the State of Wisconsin measures additional variables, including some which are thought to be politically sensitive by the Bureau of the Census.

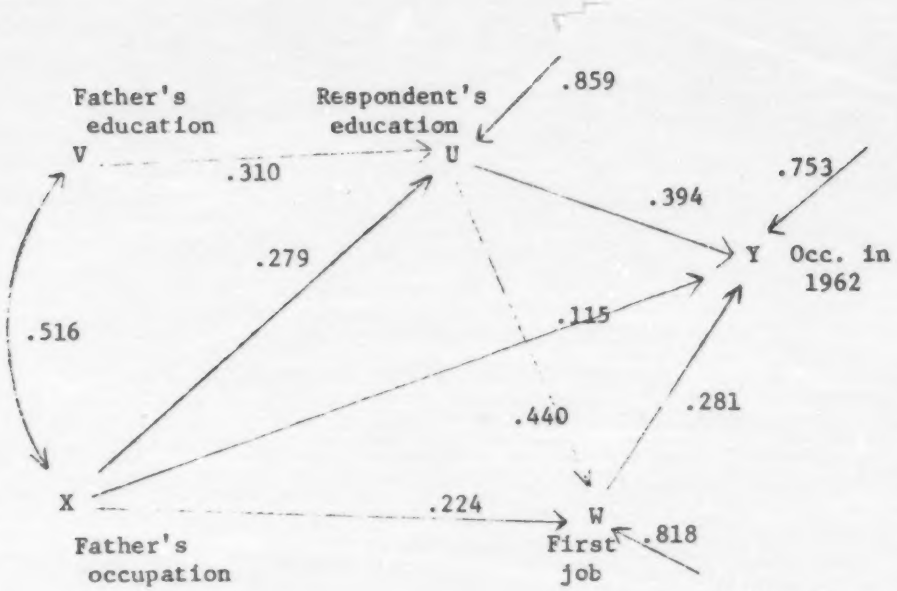
The selection and construction of supplement items has required hard choices. Changes in CPS procedures have made verbatim replication problematic.

Multitudes of potential new items were evaluated in terms of relevance to social theory and policy, validity and feasibility of measurement, effect on the quality of replicated items, and on overall response rates.

Numerous checks on the quality of data were built in the study design. These included reinterviews on selected March CPS and supplement items and record checks to be carried out in connection with the Wisconsin survey.

Conditional on the achievement of a true replication, the new OCG survey presents rich possiblities for measuring trends in stratification and for improving the quality of indicators of stratification. Whether we shall attain strict replication depends upon our ability to implement successfully the proposed design and to educate ourselves about the technical and procedural changes instituted by the Bureau of the Census which, at least in some measure, will affect comparability of our study and the 1962 benchmark.

FIGURE 1



Basic causal model of the process of status attainment (Source: Blau and Duncan (1967:170); coefficients on straight, one-headed arrows are net regression coefficients in standard form; coefficient on curved, two-headed arrow is a coefficient of correlation.)

TABLE 1

Regression Coefficients for Recursive Model Relating Achieved Statuses to Family Background Factors, by Age, for Nonnegro Men with Nonfarm Background, in Experienced Civilian Labor Force: March 1962. (Parentheses enclose each coefficient whose value is less than its standard error in absolute value.)

Age and Dependent Variable*	Independent Variables					Coefficient of Determination (R^2)
	Y	U	T	X	V	
25-34						
U			-.2211	.0352	.1889	.263
Y		4.8333	-.1889	.0833	.4520	.436
H	.0452	.0785	-.0813	.0152	(-.0151)	.126
35-44						
U			-.2281	.0384	.1707	.269
Y		4.3767	-.4633	.1352	(.0485)	.431
H	.0704	.1998	-.0374	.0114	.0712	.216
45-54						
U			-.2057	.0471	.1493	.260
Y		3.7994	-.3960	.1533	-.1513	.372
H	.0918	.2394	(.0182)	.0395	(.0109)	.222
55-64						
U			-.2028	.0399	.1672	.208
Y		3.1965	-.6454	.1366	.3094	.342
H	.0768	.2281	(.0214)	(.0076)	(.0212)	.159

Source: Duncan, Featherman, & Duncan, 1972: Tables 3.1 and 3.2.

*V: Father's educational attainment
X: Father's occupational status
T: Respondent's number of siblings
U: Respondent's education
Y: Respondent's occupational status, March 1962
H: Respondent's income in 1961

TABLE 2

Variables in the March Current Population Survey* and the OCG Supplement by Question Numbers

Source	Item	March 1962	Replication 1973
CPS	Identification, geographic location, housing unit, type of interview, and noninterview data	Q.1-17	Q.1-17
	Persons 0-13 years old:		
	Age (by month in 1962, year in 1972)	29-29a	27
	Race (white, negro, other)	31	29
	Sex	32	30
	Relation to head	28	26
	Civilian household members aged 14 and older		
	Labor force status, unemployment	19-20,22,24-25a	19-20,21-22
	Hours worked	21	20A,20E
	Reason for part-time work	21A-21C	20C
	Employer	26A	23A
	Industry	26B	23B
	Occupation	26C	23C
	Class of worker	26D	23E
	Most important activities or duties	--	23D
	Duration of unemployment	23	22C
	Job search behavior	--	22A-22F,24A-24E
	All household members aged 14 and older		
	Population status	27a	25a
	Relation to head	28	26
	Age (by month in 1962, year in 1972)	29,29a	27
	Marital status	30	28
	Race	31	29
	Sex	32	30
	Veteran status (males, WW II in 1962; all, in 1972)	32	30
	Education (attended, completed)	33,34	31,32
	Married more than once	35	--
	Date of first marriage	36	--
	Live births (married women only)	37	--
	Income		
	Wage and salary	38	45
	Self-employment	39	46
	Farm	40	47
	Nonearned income	41	--
	Social Security, Veterans Payments, Private Pensions	41a	--
	Dividends, interest, annuity	41b	--
	Rental	41c	--
	Other	41d	--

TABLE 2 (CON'T)

Source	Item	March 1962	Replication 1973
	Social Security, Railroad Retirement	--	48a
	Estates, trusts, dividends interest on savings bonds, net rental income	--	48b
	Welfare payments or other public assistance	--	48c
	Unemployment compensation, workmen's compensation, government employee pensions, veterans payments	--	48d
	Private pensions and annuities, alimony, regular contributions from persons not in same household, other	--	48e
	Weeks worked in previous year	--	34
	Nonwork activity	--	35-42
	Longest job in previous year	--	43-44E
	Origin or descent	--	52
OCG Supplement	Birthplace Respondent	1	1[A]
	Father	2	2[A]
	Mother	3	3[A]
	Number of sisters	4a	5[A]
	Older sisters	4b	5[A]
	Number of brothers	4c	5[A]
	Older brothers	4d	5[A]
	Older brothers live at age 25	4e	--
	(Any brothers live to age 25)	--	6[D]
	Educational attainment, oldest brother	5	6[B]
	Size of place of origin, age 16	6	7[A]
	Auspices of schools (parochial, private, public)	7	--
	Age at first job	8a	18f[B]
	First full-time civilian job	8b-8d	18a-18e[B]
	Living with both parents	9	8a[A]
	Other head of household	9a	8b[A]
	Father's occupation, son's age 16	10	11a-11e[B]
	Father's educational attainment	11	12[A]
	Marital status	12	28[A]

TABLE 2 (CON'T)

Source	Item	March 1962	Replication 1973
	Wife's siblings	13a,13b	30a,30b[A]
	Wife's father's occupation	14	32a,32e[B]
	Original nationality, father's side	--	4[C]
	Educational attainment, youngest brother	--	6c[D]
	Family annual income, age 16	--	9[D]
	Year of father's birth	--	10[D]
	Father (head) ususally work, R's age 16	--	11f[D]
	Mother's educational attainment	--	13[D]
	School enrollment status, March	--	14[D]
	Education completed, March	--	15[D]
	Name and address of college last attended	--	16a[D]
	Field of specialization	--	16b[D]
	Month and year when completed highest grade	--	17[D]
	Never worked; no civilian full-time job	--	18[D]
	Discontinue school for six months	--	19a[D]
	Highest grade at first school interruption	--	19b[D]
	Month and year first school interruption	--	19c[D]
	Ever serve in active military service	--	20[D]
	Highest grade completed before first entered military service	--	21[C]
	Date first entered military	--	22[C]
	Date last military separation	--	23[C]
	Occupation, March 1962	--	24a-24f[C]
	Labor union membership	--	25[D]
	Ever married	--	26[D]
	Date first married	--	27[C]
	Current marriage is first marriage	--	29[C]
	Wife living with both parents, age 16	--	31a[D]
	Other head of wife's household	--	31b[D]
	Wife's father (head) usually work wife's age 16	--	32f[D]
	Wife's father's education	--	33[D]
	Wife's mother's education	--	34[D]

NOTES: Dash indicates that item does not appear.

*Content of the March 1972 CPS was used as a guide for anticipating that of March 1973, unless we were aware of a Bureau of Census decision to exclude an item from the 1973 schedule (for example, one-year migration). Question numbers refer to those on the 1972 schedule.

[A]Replicate OCG-I item on OCG-II questionnaire.

[B]Parallel item to OCG-I, but modified in wording of question.

[C]New item on OCG-II, borrowed verbatim from another survey or census, or whose format has been borrowed and focused for our purpose.

[D]New item on OCG-II, constructed by principal investigators.

FOOTNOTES

[1]These selected conclusions drawn from the OCG data are reported in Blau and Duncan (1967) and elaborated in Duncan, Featherman, and Duncan (1972). Other generalizations are documented in the bibliographic citations appended hereto.

[2]Excluded from this brief summary of the OCG findings are the socio-economic effects of the internal structure of the family of origin (sibling position; data on R's brother), stability of family of origin, migration, and marriage and fertility.

[3]While our text is cast in the past tense, certain statements of "fact" about the survey (for example, the exact number of completed interviews) remain as educated guesses at the time we completed this draft, in late January. While details of design had become firm in late December after our pretest, the OCG field work had not begun nor were the March CPS and State of Wisconsin surveys underway.

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